Balegulli-Baindur coast line from north to south, seventy-two miles long; and the Kumta-Sirsi line, thirty-nine miles long. Mails from and to Bombay are carried once a week by steamers for Kárwár throughout the year.

Telegraph.

The two telegraph offices at Kárwár and Kumta are of the third class, working for seven hours a day from ten in the morning to five in the evening during week days. Kárwár is joined to Dhárwár by a telegraph line on the Kárwár-Dhárwár road by the Arbail pass and Kumta to Kárwár by a branch line. Both the offices which are supplied with the Simon's Relay and Sounder instruments, are in charge of telegraph masters, the one at Kárwár drawing a yearly salary of £218 8*s.* (Rs. 2184), and the one at Kumta £192 (Rs. 1920), each having an establishment which costs £24 (Rs. 240) a year. The messages sent from Kárwár were 5555 in 1882 against 5155 in 1881. For seven years between 1865 and 1871 the Kárwár telegraph office was of the first class with one telegraph master and four signallers. As, owing to the decrease of trade at Kárwár, there was a fall in the number of messages the office was reduced in 1872 to the third class.

Light-Houses.

Of the three light-houses, two are at Kárwár and one at Kumta. The Oyster-rock, north lat. 14° 49′ 25″ east long. 74° 2′ 50″, is a fixed white dioptric light of the first order, on a white granite masonry tower which rises seventy-two feet above the top of the Oyster-rock or Devgad isle in Kárwár bay and is about 210 feet above high water. It can be seen in clear weather from the deck of a ship twenty-five miles off and lightens an area of about 150 square miles. It was built in 1864. Konay, north lat. 14° 48′ 20″ east long. 76° 6′ 40″, has a red fixed ship's port-side light, displayed from the Kárwár port office on a white flagstaff sixty feet from the ground and sixty-five above high water. It can be seen from a ship's deck five miles off and lightens an arc of 35° seaward. It was built in 1864. With the light bearing east-south-east, a vessel can anchor in three to five fathoms. Kumta, north lat. 14° 25′ 10″ east long. 74° 22′ 55″, is a fixed white light, a common lantern with three burners, on a white laterite column sixty feet above the top of a conical hill 120 feet high, at the mouth of the Kumta creek and about a mile and a half from the town. It can be seen in the fair weather from a ship's deck nine miles off and lightens an arc of 150° seaward, or an area of fifty-four square miles. It was built in 1855.

SECTION II.—TRADE.

The products for which Kánara is famous, its pepper, white sandalwood, betelnut and betel leaves, spices, and rice, the iron of Maisur, and the fine muslins and painted cloths of Dhárwár and Belgaum, are among the chief articles in the earliest records of Indian trade. These records go back with certainty to B.C. 1000, the time of Solomon and the great Phœnician traders, probably to B.C. 1500, possibly to a very much higher antiquity.[1] The

[1] Compare The Rev. T. Foulkes in Indian Antiquary, VIII. 10.

Chapter VI. Trade. History, A.D. 100-300.

nearness to Honávar and Bhatkal of the ancient capital of Banavási, of which record remains as early as B.C. 250, and its mention in the Jain version of the Rámáyan make it probable that trade has centred at Honávar from very early times. The first mention of Honávar is under the form Naoura in the Greek Periplus of the Erythræan sea whose probable date is A.D. 247. From the close similarity of the names, several of the earlier English writers on India identified Mirján about ten miles north of Honávar, with Muziris, which was one of the leading centres of Greek trade with India during the first, second, and third centuries of the Christian era.[1] The details given in the Periplus that Naoura is the first port in Limurike, that is Damurike or the Tamil country, and that after Naoura come Tundis, Nelkunda, and Mouziris, if Naoura is identified with Honávar, would place Mouziris much further south than Mirján. And the discovery by Bishop Caldwell and Dr. Burnell that the once famous (fourteenth century) port of Kranganor in Malabár, about fifteen miles north of Kochin, was in early times known as Muyiri or Muyirikotta is now accepted as proving the identity of Muziris and Kranganor. None of the Greek or Roman writers give details of the trade at Naoura or Honávar. But as most of the leading articles were probably the same at the two ports the following details are taken from the Periplus account of the trade of Nelkunda. The exports were, pepper in great quantities, superior pearls, ivory, fine silks, spikenard, malabathron that is *tamálapatra* or *tejpat* from the eastern countries, transparent stones, diamonds, rubies, and tortoise-shell.[2] The imports were, great quantities of specie, topazes, plain cloth, fine cloth, stibium, coral, white glass, brass, tin, lead, a little wine, cinnabar, orpiment, and corn for the ship.[3]

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[1] Details are given under Mirján.

[2] Vincent's Commerce of the Ancients, II. 457-459. Vincent (462) thought malabathron was the betel leaf. But Yule (Cathay, icxzv.) identifies it with the *tamálapatra* Laurus cassia, a leaf with a pleasant clove-like smell.

[3] Vincent, II. 457-459. After Turannosboas, which is apparently in Ratnágiri and is possibly a Greek rendering of Rájápur, the author of the Periplus (Veteris Geographiæ Scriptores; Vincent's Commerce of the Ancients, II. 427-466; McCrindle, 129-130) says: 'You come next to the islands called Sesekreinai and the island of the Aigidioi and that of the Kaineitai, near what is called the Khersonesus, places in which are pirates, and after this the island of Leuke or the White. Then follow Naoura and Tundis, the first marts of Limurike, and after these Mouziris and Nelkunda, seats of government.' Of these places the Sesekreinai islands are probably the Vengurla rocks, which, though too far to the south, possibly appear in Ptolemy (Bertius' Edition, 213) under the name of Ooangalia or Vangalia. The island of the Aigidioi, which appears in Ptolemy (Bertius' Edition, 213) as Aigidion, in the neighbourhood of Vangalia, and like it much too far to the south, is placed by Vincent (Commerce of the Ancients, II. 433) at Goa, but apparently is Anjidiv. The island of the Kaineitai is doubtful. It apparently is Ptolemy's Canathra (Bertius' Edition, 213) which he places near the island of the Aigidioi, much further south than the Kánara coast. Neitai, the second part of Kaineitai, suggests Netráni or Pigeon Island, forty-five miles south of Anjidiv and about twenty-five miles south-west of Honávar. The close resemblance of the name seems to identify Netráni with Pliny's (A.D. 77; Natural History, VI. 23) Nitrias, a place where pirates and rovers gathered and troubled vessels on their way to Muziris, which is almost certainly Muyiri or Kranganor about fifteen miles north of Kochin (Caldwell's Dravidian Grammar, 97). Against the identification of Pliny's Nitrias with the island Netráni there is Ptolemy's (Bertius' Edition, 198) trade centre or emporium of Nitra close to the north of Tundis. Nitra has (McCrindle's Periplus, 130) been supposed to be a mistaken

It may be supposed without much danger of error that Kárwár, Chitakul, or some other place at the mouth of the Kálinadi in the north of the district, and Mirján, Honávar, and Bhatkal in the south shared in the pepper trade for which from the sixth century to the fourteenth century the Malabár coast continued famous.[1] The only references which have been traced to Kánara ports as places of trade during the long period between the Periplus (247) and the arrival of the Portuguese (1498) are the mention of Honávar by the geographer Abul-fida (1273-1331),[2] of Bhatkal by Jordanus in 1321,[3] of Sindabur that is Chitakul and of Honávar by Ibn Batuta in 1342,[4] and of Honávar by the Persian ambassador Abd-er-Razzak in 1444.[5] From the time of the conquest of Upper India by the Musalmáns in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, a supply of horses from Arabia and Persia became the most pressing want of Southern India. The import of horses was probably a very old trade. It is certainly as old as the sixth century, as Kosmas Indikopleustes (535) mentions that horses were brought from Persia to Ceylon.[6] But in the latter part of the thirteenth century, the fear of invasion by the hordes of northern horsemen, seems to have caused a great increase in the import of horses into Southern India.[7] Early in the fourteenth century (1336) the establishment of a powerful dynasty at Vijayanagar, with control over the coast, must have added much to the trade in the Kánara ports. King Devráj (1420-1445) is said to have been warned in a dream that his only chance of holding his own with the Bahmani kings was by adding to his stock of horses, and during the rest of the fifteenth century a great

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form of the Periplus Naoura, which, probably correctly, is taken to be a corruption of Honávar. The name Nitra can hardly be a mistake for the name Naoura, and, as before Ptolemy's time the place was so well known for its pirates, it seems probable that Ptolemy confused the island Netráni with the trade centre of Honávar on the neighbouring coast. The Khersonesus or peninsula near which the island Kaineitai lies seems to be the same as Ptolemy's Khersonesus (Bertius' Edition, 198). Vincent (Commerce of the Ancients, II. 433) identifies the Khersonesus with Goa, the only peninsula on the coast. This does not agree well with the suggestion that the island of the Kaineitai is Netráni, but no better identification can be offered. The island of Leuke or the White appears under the same name in Ptolemy (Bertius' Edition, 206). Mr. R. E. Candy, the Collector of Kánara, suggests that Leuke is the group of nine islands well known as the Lákhadivs, about 180 miles south-west of Netráni, four of which are described by Mr. Hume (Stray Feathers, IV. 428, 431, 436, 444, 452) as paved with fine snow white coral sand. The glare of this white coral would help the change of name from Lákha to Leuke or the White. Naoura is generally, and probably correctly, identified with Honávar. As has been noticed above, the position of Honávar corresponds closely with Ptolemy's trade-centre Nitra and may be Pliny's pirate-haunt Nitra or Nitrias, though the names Nitra and Nitrias seem to belong to Netráni or Pigeon Island which lies about twenty-five miles south-west of Honávar. Tundis, Nelkunda, and Mouziris have been identified by Bishop Caldwell and Dr. Burnell (Caldwell's Dravidian Grammar, 97; Map in Burnell's South Indian Palæography) Tundis with Kadalundi in Malabár about ten miles south of Kalikat; Mouziris with Muyiri the old name of Kranganor about twenty miles north of Kochin, and Nelkunda with Kallada about fifteen miles north of Quilon.

[1] In the sixth century Cosmas Indikopleustes, in Vincent, II. 481-506; Yule's Cathay, czxxvii.; Migne's Patrologiæ Cursus, 81: in the fourteenth century (1321) Jordanus' Mirabilia, 27, and Oderic in Yule's Cathay, I. 71.

[2] Yule's Cathay, 416 note 2 and 451.

[3] Jordanus' Mirabilia, 40.

[4] Lee's Ibn Batuta, 164, 165, 174, 175.

[5] Major's India in XVth Century, 44, 45.

[6] Yule's Cathay, czxxv.

[7] Of the great trade in horses about 1290 details are given in Yule's Marco Polo, II. 277, 278; compare Rashid-u-din in Elliot and Dowson, I. 69.

Chapter VI. Trade.

History, 1500-1600.

trade in horses centred in Goa, and after the capture of Goa by the Bijápur Musalmáns in 1469 in Honávar and Bhatkal.[1]

In the beginning of the sixteenth century the chief centres of trade were Chitakul or Sadáshivgad, Honávar, and Bhatkal. In 1505 Varthema mentions many Moorish merchants at Chitakul and at Bhatkal,[2] and in 1514 Barbosa mentions very commercial Moor and Gentile traders at Bhatkal.[3] Of exports in 1503 iron was sent from Bhatkal to all parts of India[4] and in 1514 in large quantities to the Malabár coast and Ormuz.[5] In 1503 rice was sent in great quantities from Bhatkal to all parts of India.[6] In 1505 much rice was sent from Honávar and great quantities from Bhatkal.[7] In 1514 cheap rice was sent from Mirján and Honávar to the Malabár ports and good white rice from Bhatkal to the Malabár coast and to Ormuz.[8] In 1503 sugar was sent from Bhatkal to all parts of India;[9] in 1505 abundance of sugar especially of candied sugar was exported from Bhatkal;[10] and in 1514 much was sent from Bhatkal to the Malabár coast and to Ormuz.[11] There was a small export of drugs and spices. In 1508 two Portuguese ships went to Bhatkal to take cloves,[12] and in 1514 there was an export of spices and drugs of which myrobalans were the chief.[13] Of imports in 1514 copper was bought in large quantities at Bhatkal and sent inland where it was worked into caldrons and coins, and there was also a sale for much quicksilver, vermillion, coral, alum, and ivory.[14] From the Malabár ports cocoanuts, oil, and palm-sugar were brought to Mirján, Honávar, and Bhatkal, and palm-wine and some drugs to Bhatkal.[15] The chief branch of trade was the import of horses from Arabia and Persia. With the Deccan and Vijayanagar kings the supply of horses was the chief object of trade. At Vijayanagar, says Varthema in 1505, horses are not reared; there are few mares and the kings who hold the ports do not allow mares to be imported.[16] In 1508 Dalboquerque found that a supply of horses was what the Indian princes most valued. A promise to secure them a monopoly of the import of horses forms the chief inducement held out by the Portuguese in their treaties with Vijayanagar in 1505, 1509, and 1512; with Bijápur in 1510;[17] with Gujarát in 1538; and with Vijayanagar in 1547. Barbosa in 1514 notices that all the Vijayanagar horses were imported from Ormuz and from Cambay and that they did not live long. In 1505, according to Varthema, the Vijayanagar king had 40,000 horsemen whose horses were worth £100 to £166 (*Pardaos* 300-500),[18] and some of the best as much as £266 (*Pardaos*

[1] Mr. Mack's MS. Account of Malabár. [2] Badger's Edition, 120.
[3] Stanley's Barbosa, 78. [4] Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama, 309.
[5] Stanley's Barbosa, 78. [6] Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama, 309.
[7] Badger's Varthema, 120, 122. [8] Stanley's Barbosa, 78.
[9] Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama, 309. [10] Badger's Varthema, 120.
[11] Stanley's Barbosa, 78. [12] Commentaries of Dalboquerque, II. 53.
[13] Stanley's Barbosa, 78. [14] Stanley's Barbosa, 78.
[15] Stanley's Barbosa, 78. [16] Badger's Varthema.
[17] Compare History Chapter and Com. Dalb. III. 21, 38; II. lxv.; Subsidios, II. 134-138.
[18] Apparently the gold *Pardao*, which according to Cæsar Frederick (1567, Hakluyt, II. 346) was worth 6*s.* 8*d.* The silver *Pardao* was worth 1*s.* 6*d.* Com. Dalb. II. 95. The *Pardao* was called *Pagoda* by Europeans because it bore the image of a temple. It is the same as the Maisur *Hun*. Badger's Varthema, 130.

800).[1] In 1514 Barbosa estimated the number of the Vijayanagar cavalry at 20,000 and their value at £100 to £200 (*Ducats* 300-600) for the commoner horses and to £300 to £333 (*Ducats* 900-1000) for the best.[2] Besides in war, horses were much used for carrying the wives of captains and principal lords.[3] Barbosa notices that these horses came from Jazan, Hali, and Alhor in West Arabia, and from Xeher on the south coast of Arabia which had very large and good horses worth in India £166 to £200 (*Ducats* 500-600).[4] Very good horses were also to be had in the Persian Gulf which were bought by the Moors of Ormuz who every year sent to India 500 to 600 and sometimes as many as 1000.[5] When the Portuguese came a great traffic in horses centered in Bhatkal. In 1509 Dalboquerque offered the Vijayanagar king a monopoly of the horses which were brought from Ormuz to Bhatkal.[6] In 1512, when he was firmly established at Goa, it was one of Dalboquerque's first cares to centre the horse trade at Goa, and with this object he built stables and engaged 300 men to look after the grass and fodder.[7] The supply of horses continued the chief subject of negotiation between the Portuguese and the Indian princes. In Da Castro's treaty with Vijayanagar in 1547 the first provision is that the Portuguese shall send Arab and Persian horses to Vijayanagar and shall prevent them going to Bijápur.[8] In December 1567 Cæsar Frederick went from Goa to Vijayanagar with some horse-merchants who had a caravan of 300 Arab horses. He found the horses of the country small and that long prices were paid for Arab horses. High prices were required to make the horse-trade pay. It was very costly bringing horses from Persia to Ormuz and from Ormuz to Goa, in spite of the help which the Portuguese Government gave by remitting the usual eight per cent duty on any ship which brought more than twenty horses. On leaving Goa each horse had to pay £14 (*Pagodas* 42 of 6*s.* 8*d.* each). At Vijayanagar Arab horses fetched from £70 to £225 (*Ducats* 300-1000).[9] Besides proving that the horse trade was still the most important branch of traffic, the 1547 treaty between Dom Joao da Castro and Vijayanagar shows that the Portuguese had factors at Ankola and Honávar; that grain, saltpetre, iron, and cloth were exported from the inland parts to the coast; and that copper, tin, coral, vermillion, mercury, silk, and other articles were imported from Portugal, Ormuz, and China.[10] About 1554, Sindábur that is Chitakul and Honávar are mentioned in the Mohit, or Turkish Seaman's Guide, as starting points in the regular voyages to Aden.[11] In the latter part of the century the pepper trade seems to have risen in importance. In the Portuguese treaty with the

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[1] Badger's Varthema, 126.
[2] Stanley's Edition, 90. The ducat is apparently the *pardao*. Compare Badger's Varthema, 115. [3] Com. Dalb. III. 39.
[4] Stanley's Barbosa, 26, 31. Jazan is Jizan or Ghĕzan, Hali is Ali the limit between Hajas and Yaman, Alor is apparently Lohei, Xeher is Shahar or Shehir in Hadramaut. See Maps in Vincent, II. 74 and Milburn, I. 81. [5] Stanley's Barbosa, 33, 42.
[6] Com. Dalb. II. lxv. [7] Com. Dalb. III. 39, 40. [8] Subsidios, II. 255-257.
[9] Cæsar Frederick, 1563-1581. Hakluyt's Voyages, II. 346.
[10] Subsidios Para a Historia da India Portugueza: Lisbon, 1868, P. II. 255, 257.
[11] Jour. As. Soc. Beng. V-2, 464.

Chapter VI. Trade. History, 1500-1600.

queen of Gersappa in 1540 she is made to promise that she will not ship pepper.[1] Towards the close of the sixteenth century Jean Hughes de Linschot mentions that there was a yearly trade of 7000 to 8000 Portuguese quintaux of pepper which was considered the best in India.[2] Early in the seventeenth century, in consequence of the spread of Bijápur power along the Kánara coast, Kárwár rose to importance as a place of trade and became the chief port in the Bijápur dominions.[3] Honávar maintained its name as a pepper mart, the queen of Gersappa from whose lands the pepper came being called by the Portuguese Rainha de Pimenta the Pepper Queen.[4] It was chiefly the fame of the pepper of Sonda and Gersappa which induced Courten's Company of English merchants to open factories in Kárwár and Bhatkal in 1638 and 1639.[5] Between 1650 and 1660 a great export of the finest muslins was developed at Kárwár. The cloth was not woven in Kánara but above the Sahyádris in Dhárwár where Hubli was a great weaving centre. When the Dhárwár districts were laid waste by Shiváji in 1672 the Kárwár factory and their agents are said to have been employing as many as 50,000 weavers.[6] Besides the great export of muslins Kárwár provided pepper, cardamoms, cassia, and coarse cloth or *dungari*. There was a demand for lead and broadcloth.[7] It was usual for the Indiamen or ships from Europe, after landing part of their cargo at Surat, to drop down the coast to Kárwár, land such imports as were in demand, and take in local lading.[8] In 1660 Baldæus describes Kánara as rich in rice and other produce.[9] In 1665 the Kárwár factory had to pay Shiváji £112 (Rs. 1120).[10] In 1670 the trade at the Kárwár factory was prosperous.[11] In 1673 the Dutch and Portuguese divided the trade of Honávar.[12] In 1676 Fryer notices that the Sonda or Kárwár pepper was the best in the world. It was also the dearest as most of it went inland and little to Europe.[13] The pepper-country was supposed to yield the Sonda chief a yearly revenue of £1,000,000 (*Pagodas* 30 *lákhs*). Fryer also notices in the south some pepper and stores of betelnut and wild nutmeg.[14] The southern pepper was much valued and was known in trade as Butkole from Bhatkal pepper.[15] Mirján sent pepper, saltpetre, and betelnut to Surat.[16] The chief products of the district were rice, *náchni*, millet, hemp, turmeric, ginger, and potatoes.[17] The destructive raids of Shiváji were ruining trade.[18] So great was the depression that in 1678 and 1679 orders were issued to close the Kárwár factory.[19] In 1678 the Portuguese opened factories at Mirján, Chandávar, Honávar, and Bhatkal.[20] In 1681 and 1682 when the strength of the factory at Kárwár was increased, the object is said to have been to keep open the means of getting

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[1] Subsidios, II. 257-258. [2] Navigation, 21. [3] Fryer's East India and Persia, 58.
[4] Dela Valle (1623), III. 191. [5] Bruce's Annals, I. 419.
[6] Hamilton's New Account, I. 267. [7] Bruce's Annals, II. 143, 144.
[8] Bruce's Annals, II. 143, 144. Surat to the Court, 28th January 1663.
[9] Malabár and Coromandel Coast Annals, 1672, 68.
[10] Anderson's Western India, 76. [11] Bruce's Annals, II. 786.
[12] Fryer, 57. [13] East India and Persia, 163. [14] Fryer, 169.
[15] Calcutta Review, XXI. 364. [16] Fryer, 58. [17] Fryer, 176-177.
[18] Fryer, 183. [19] Bruce's Annals, II, 399, 442, 472. [20] Instruccao, &.

pepper, cardamoms, benjamin, cloth, and Cassia lignum.[1] In 1683 the Kárwár investments were 200 tons of pepper, 51,000 pieces of *dungari*, 8000 pieces of *patkis*, 10,600 pieces of *perkolis*, 50 bales of cardamoms, 20,000 pieces of *baftas*, 2000 *sevagajis*, and 50 *khandis* of Cassia lignum.[2] In 1690, perhaps in consequence of the great depression in Bombay and Surat, Kárwár seems to have been prosperous and for the first time to have traded direct with England.[3] Towards the close of the century, in spite of the rivalry of the Dutch, whose great object was to get possession of the pepper trade, the only branch of the spice trade of which they had not secured the monopoly, the Kárwár trade in white pepper was prosperous and important.[4] Milburn gives the following summary of the English trade at Kárwár: From Persia came almonds, dates, rosewater, and raisins; from Arabia horses and drugs;[5] and from Europe iron, lead, sword-blades, knives, branch coral, and wearing apparel for the Portuguese. The exports were, pepper, coarse brown cloth, coarse brown muslin, Goa spirits, Shiráz wine, cardamoms, cassia, nux vomica, bezoar, and a few other trifling articles. The Kárwár pepper was the best on the coast.[6]

1700-1730.

In the early part of the eighteenth century the Portuguese continued to have factories at Mirján, Honávar, Chandávar, and Bhatkal.[7] In the south of the district the export of rice and the import of horses were still among the most important branches of trade. In 1713 the Portuguese complain that the Bednur chief was always proud and troublesome because his country was his neighbours' granary,[8] and one of the conditions of the treaty which they concluded with the Bednur chief in the following year (1714) was that the Portuguese should allow two Kánara boats to go to Ormuz to fetch horses.[9] Till 1720 the English kept open their factory at Kárwár where the Sonda pepper was still acknowledged to be the best in India.[10] English ships also often visited Bhatkal to get cargoes of pepper.[11] In 1720, in consequence of a dispute with the Sonda chief the English were forced to leave Kárwár.[12] Perhaps to supply its place they soon after opened at Honávár a branch factory from Tellicherri. The chief objects were to secure a share in the trade in pepper and sandalwood.[13] In 1726 and 1727 trade was at a stand on account of the ravages caused by Bájiráo Peshwa in his invasion of Maisur and Bednur.[14] After the English were forced to leave Kárwár in 1720 the value of the pepper trade at Kárwár continued sufficiently great to tempt them to make every effort to persuade the chief to allow them to return. Leave

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[1] Bruce's Annals, II. 460, 487.
[2] Orme's Historical Fragments, 209. The piece of cloth is said to be eighteen feet by one. [3] See Bombay Gazetteer, XIII. 480. [4] Bruce's Annals, III. 427.
[5] Fryer (170) notices that Arab horses are the life of the Indian cavalry, and Careri (1695) that Arab and Persian horses cost the Moghals Rs. 1000 to Rs. 2000. Churchill, IV. 221.
[6] Oriental Commerce, I. 312. [7] Instruccao, 8. [8] Os. Portuguezos, VII. 148.
[9] Os. Portuguezos, VII. 157-161. [10] Hamilton's New Account, I. 262.
[11] Os. Portuguezos, VII. 278. [12] Hamilton's New Account, I. 268, 269.
[13] Onor factory to Tellicherri, 9th January 1727.
[14] Onor factory to Tellicherri, 9th January 1727.

Chapter VI. Trade. History, 1750-1800.

was given them in 1750 and they remained till 1752, when, as the Portuguese who claimed the monopoly of the trade had seized Pir Hill at the mouth of the river, they were forced to withdraw.[1] In 1751 the English succeeded in establishing a factory in Honávar chiefly for pepper, and after his conquest of Bednur in 1763 Haidar gave the factors leave to remain.[2] In 1772, Forbes mentions a considerable manufacture of catechu at Kárwár.[3] At Mirján the English had for seventy years a large warehouse to store pepper and sandalwood brought from Maisur.[4] Honávar was the centre of a considerable trade. The English had a factory to buy pepper and sandalwood for the English and Chinese markets. There was also a large private trade with Bombay and the north in betelnuts and other articles.[5] The lowlands near Honávar were well tilled and thickly planted with cocoa and betel palms, pepper, rice, and cheap grain. Of the export of white sandalwood, which was the most important branch of trade, Mr. Forbes gives the following details.[6] The sandal tree is indigenous to the rocky hills of Honávar, and if allowed, would grow to a tolerable size; but the wood is so valuable that the tree is cut before it grows at the most to a foot broad. The wood is either red, yellow, or a whitish brown; and from its colour and size is called the first, second, and third sort of sandalwood, each varying in price. The best sandalwood costs £10 to £20 (Rs. 100-Rs. 200) the *khandi* of 560 pounds. The wood of the brightest colour and strongest scent is most esteemed, having a fine grain and an aromatic smell which it communicates to every thing near it. It is much used in small cabinets, writing-desks, and similar articles, as within its influence no insect can live and no iron can rust. From the dust and shavings an aromatic oil is extracted. The oil and wood are used by Hindus and Pársis in their religious ceremonies, but the greatest part of the wood is kept for the China markets where it sells to great advantage. The English traveller Parsons, who visited Kánara in 1775, three years after Forbes, notices that the Portuguese felons in the penal settlement of Anjidiv spun thread and yarn and made the best stockings which were to be had in Western India. The English had still a factory at Honávar and the place had risen in importance as Haidar Ali had made it a naval store and dockyard. Parsons, who was a sailor, was much interested by two half-finished and excellently modelled and built frigates then on the stocks, one of which was to carry thirty-two and the other twenty-four guns.[7] The river was very convenient for the export of pepper in which the place abounded and of sandalwood of which Haidar had a monopoly and from which he drew great profit as it was in constant demand in China.[8] He refused to let Europeans have the sandalwood unless they paid for it in fire-arms. Sandal oil was also in great esteem and worth its weight in silver.[9] Until Haidar's death in 1782 the trade at Honávar continued important. On an

[1] Bom. Quar. Review, VI. 209-210.
[2] Bom. Quar. Review, VI. 211.
[3] Oriental Memoirs, I. 303.
[4] Oriental Memoirs, IV. 108, 109.
[5] Oriental Memoirs, I. 306.
[6] Oriental Memoirs, I. 307.
[7] Details are given under History.
[8] Parsons' Travels, 220-225.
[9] Parsons' Travels, 224-225.

average the English factors procured every year 900 *khandis* of pepper, each *khandi* containing 520 pounds and being worth £11 to £12 (Rs. 110-Rs. 120). They also secured the whole of the sandalwood which varied from 200 to 300 *khandis* of 600 pounds each. There were no cardamoms, but every year 1000 *khandis* of 560 pounds of betelnuts worth about £4000 were exported. The trade in cocoanuts and kernels called *copras* was worth about £1200 (Rs. 12,000) a year and was in the hands of private traders. There were no manufactures and little export of rice as the whole was consumed in the local and inland markets.[1] During the reign of Tipu Sultán (1782-1799) the trade of the Kánara ports was ruined by Tipu because it gave strangers an excuse for prying into the affairs of his kingdom and because in his opinion trade impoverished a country. In 1799, when the district passed to the British, Honávar had not a single house and Mirján was ruined.[2] In 1801 Buchanan found the coasting trade much hampered by pirates as people were afraid to build boats. There were no manufactures. Tipu had destroyed trade, and merchants were only beginning to come back. The chief export was rice and after rice cocoanuts, betelnuts, pepper, and sandalwood,[3] and salt and a little catechu went inland from Ankola and Kárwár.[4] In the upland parts there were few merchants. Some traders from below the Sahyádris bought a little pepper, but the chief buyers were Banjigs from Hubli, Dhárwár, and the Marátha country. These inland traders bought cloth and grain and took pepper, betelnut, and cardamoms. Some of the trading was done by barter, but most by cash payments to the local shopkeepers. There was an import of iron from Maisur for local use and an import and great through traffic in salt from the coast to the Karnátak.[5] By 1805 the trade which had been destroyed began to revive. The merchants returned from the countries where they had taken shelter. Rice, pepper, betelnuts, and cocoanuts were taken to Goa, Rájápur, and Bombay. Till 1812 pirates, whose head-quarters were at Málvan in Ratnágiri, continued to prevent the recovery of trade as the people were afraid to build or to own boats. The fear of pirates ceased at the close of 1812, when Colonel Lionel Smith, with a slight military force and a squadron of small craft, helped by the fourteen-gun cruiser Prince of Wales, went to Málvan and completely destroyed the power of the pirates.[6]

Under British rule, in the nineteenth century, the opening of the two main roads joining the ports of Kumta and Kárwár with Belgaum and Dhárwár, the change from small fair-weather coasting craft to large steam-ships plying all the year round, and the introduction of the telegraph at Kumta and Kárwár, have greatly developed the trade of Kánara. Between 1850 and 1870 at Kumta and Kárwár the through cotton trade with Belgaum and Dhárwár greatly increased, but since 1870 it has again fallen.

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[1] Milburn's Oriental Commerce.
[2] Buchanan's Mysor, III. 137, 150, 152; Munro, 30th May 1800.
[3] Buchanan's Mysor, III. 152.
[4] Buchanan's Mysor, III. 77, 180.
[5] Buchanan's Mysor, III. 228.
[6] Low's Indian Navy, I. 277.